

PARENTAL INFLUENCES IN GETTING CHILDREN

"READY TO LEARN"

A DISSERTATION

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I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Brenda Cook Stevens entitled "Parental Influences in Getting Children 'Ready to Listen.'" I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Early Childhood Education.

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DEDICATION

To my daughter, Stephanie, whose love and support have contributed so greatly to the accomplishment of this project and to my life. But most importantly, for her patience and understanding throughout this process.

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ABSTRACT

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This research project examined the effects of parent-child reading sessions have on Head Start children's language development. The subjects for this study were 16 Head Start students and parent pairs. The control group was 16 randomly selected non-participating Head Start students. The researcher instructed the parents in training sessions in techniques of reading with children. The treatment was the parents' subsequent reading to their children at home. The researcher used Gardner's (1990) Receptive One-Word Picture Vocabulary Test and Expressive One-Word Picture Vocabulary Test for the pre- and post-test with the experimental group. The experimental group and the control group were tested using the Developmental Profile II. A survey was given to each parent at the first training session. Data were analyzed in two ways. The survey and training session results were reported qualitatively and

The pre- and post-tests results were reported using quantitative methods of ANOVA and post hoc sign test.

Based on statistically significant (at .05 level) post hoc test results, the reading project was effective. Encouraging interaction between the child and the parent during reading have positive effects on language development.

It would seem that the attitude of participating parents about reading to their children did change. A limitation of this study was the low participation rate of the parents. Future research is needed on ways to build parental involvement in reading with children.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Does research support the claims about the benefits of involving parents as intervenors in children's early learning? It is widely believed that early intervention by parents result in greater benefits for children (Bronfenbrenner, 1974). According to White, Taylor, and Moss (1992), there are two important dimensions which should be considered in early intervention by parents. The first is the type of activities in which the parents are engaged as a function of parent involvement. The second dimension would be the attitude and context in which these activities are presented. This study will take one activity between parents and children and see if it is beneficial for children and results in a change in attitude by the parents.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of parent-child reading sessions on Head Start children's language development. The parents were identified and trained by the researcher. The treatment involved the

trained parents reading to their children at home. The researcher used the Expressive One-Word Picture Vocabulary Test-R by Gardner (1990a) and the Receptive One-Word Picture Vocabulary Test by Gardner (1990b) with the children, and personal interviews and a survey of home reading behaviors with the parents to determine the effects of the treatment. The Developmental Profile II by Western Psychological Services (1985) given by the Sullivan-Keller faculty to all Head Start students was used for defining a control group.

Statement of the Problem

When children go to school for the first time, some children encounter no problems in learning. Other children have problems from the beginning of their schooling. The children who are successful are considered "ready for school" (Snow & Tabors, 1993). Goal one of the six national education goals established by President Bush and the nation's governors states that by the year 2000, all children in America will start school "ready to learn" (Boyer, 1992).

Why are some children not ready for school? The Home-School Study of Language and Literacy Development, a joint study between Harvard Graduate School of Education

and the Education Department at Clark University, addresses this problem. The children used in their research attended some type of preschool program. The hypothesis for the study was that differences in reading level may be found in the types of experiences which help prepare children for school (Snow & Tabors, 1993). Some types of experiences had not previously been considered. The data collected in the study suggest that experiences at home have significant impact on the skills children demonstrate in language, literacy, and readiness to learn when they start to school.

According to Henderson (1988), involving parents in young children's education improves the children's achievement. The children have higher grades and test scores. Henderson concluded that parents who help their children learn at home nurture positive attitudes and behavior that are crucial to achievement.

Researchers suggest that children's language skills develop through interactions with adults, and that may be the most important aspect of "school readiness" (Snow & Tabors, 1993). Concern for the readiness of America's children was expressed by President Bush and the Nation's governors at a summit in 1990. The first educational goal outlined at the meeting was that all children will start school ready to learn by the year 2000 (Boyer, 1992).

Rationale

Research for improving the parent-child relationship has focused on the effects on student achievement of family interaction and status (Henderson, 1988). Reviewed in the studies were family characteristics such as parents' levels of education and income. Family behaviors researched in the studies were the amount parents read to their children and the amount they enforced rules regarding homework and television. Family characteristics included in the studies comprised the marital status of the parents, employment status of the parents, or connection to a social support network. Family attitudes looked into by the studies were self-esteem and expectations for success.

Other studies examine the home environment of children and the effects of certain parental behaviors when they enter school. Still other studies examine the changes in children enrolled in preschool or the primary grades when their parents engage in supportive activities at home. A few studies focused on the home environment and the effects were measured in children's performance at school.

According to Henderson (1988), building a strong learning environment at home positively affects student achievement. For example, most of the time, gifted students have parents who are involved in every aspect of their

development. Henderson also noted that this finding is true across all social, economic, and ethnic backgrounds.

"At-risk" children will outperform their friends if their parents are given training in home teaching.

This study encouraged parent-child interactions in the home setting. The parents of Head Start children were trained to read a book and hold discussions before and after the book reading.

Definition of Terms

Head Start--A comprehensive federal early childhood program for children who meet the eligibility requirements including age and income guidelines established by the United States Office of Management and Budget.

Parent Involvement--A process of actualizing the potential of parents; of helping parents discover their strengths, potentialities, and talents; and of using these assets for the benefit of themselves and their families (Morrison, 1978).

Ready to Learn--According to Caldwell (1991), readiness to learn is the state of the learner that makes a given task an appropriate one for him or her to master if he or she is sufficiently mature, has appropriate preparatory training, and has a desire to learn.

Vocabulary Development--The process of increasing one's store of words and meaning. Word power, which is the power to deal effectively with new words and with new meanings for old words when they are encountered, also is part of vocabulary development (Deighton, 1971).

Research Questions

The following research questions were addressed:

1. Did parents read significantly more to their children after training?
2. Did the training change the quality of parents reading to their children?
3. How was the training perceived by parents?

Hypothesis

There will be no significant difference at the .05 level between the mean scores on the WPS between experimental and control groups.

Delimitation of the Study

Only children from the Anglo culture and the Indian culture as characteristic of the Head Start population were involved. Training, interviewing, and book materials were in English. The training of the parents was a short period of time.

Limitations

African-American parent-child pairs and Hispanic parent-child pairs did not participate in the study. Low response rate also was a limitation of the study. Another limitation was attendance and tardiness of parents. Parent-trainer contravention was a limitation.

Assumption

The following assumption was made by this study:
The parents accurately reported their behavior.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Boyer (1992) suggested that many of education's failures relate to problems that precede schooling. In the past, educators have focused on school outcomes, overlooking the importance of the lives of the children before they enter school. Children need good health care and support from their families to become successful and independent learners.

According to Boyer (1992), today's parents are just as committed and caring as parents of past generations, but many changes have come about in today's families. These changes include those in the community, in the structure of the family, and in the competing, often conflicting pressures that keep family members on the go and out of touch with one another. Parents who lack support feel torn between work and family obligations. In these conditions, the children suffer the most.

A study by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (1990) showed 35% of the nation's children, more than one in three, are not ready for school. When the

teachers that participated in the study were asked about the areas in which the students were most deficient, they cited the "lack of proficiency in language." When asked what would improve the school readiness of children, the majority suggested parent education.

How can we make sure that all children have a healthy start? How can we make sure that every child lives in a supportive, language-rich environment, guided by empowered parents? Boyer (1992) suggested a basic health care plan/program for mothers and babies. A parent education program would empower parents and show them how to be supportive and provide language-rich environments for their children.

Theoretical Foundation

Theoretical research has influenced the support for early intervention programs. Research by Bloom (1964) suggested that 50% of intelligence develops by the age of four years. According to Bloom, the evidence of the studies on identical twins indicate that intelligence development is, in part, a function of the environment in which the individual lives. The implications of this evidence for public education and social policy are clear. If significantly lower intelligence can be attributed to the effects of environmental deprivations, steps must be taken

to ameliorate these conditions as early in the individual's development as possible, so education and other social forces can be utilized.

Along the same lines, Hunt (1961) contended that intelligence is neither fixed or innate. He believes that the circumstances that affect a child's experiences in the course of growing up will play an important role in intelligence and motivation for achievement and competence. Intervention effort should be focused on the very young, and parents should be involved in these programs.

Four implications can be drawn from Hunt's research which are important to the educational process, according to Morrison (1978). First, since the most rapid period of intellectual growth occurs before age 8, what children are to become intellectually will be determined before they go to school. There, children need enriched home environments and/or earlier entry into school. Second, there is evidence that educators can no longer view children as being born with a fixed intelligence. The development of a child's intelligence will depend upon variables such as experiences, social background, child-reading practices, economic factors, nutrition, and the quality of the prenatal and postnatal environment. The genetic make-up of a child carries the capacity for language development; but, if the child is reared in an

environment devoid of opportunities for interaction with adults who encourage conversation, the child will not become as linguistically competent as the child who has had such opportunities. Third, since children who lack opportunities to develop in an enriched environment also lag behind their peers intellectually, experience has shown that these deprived children will be intellectually handicapped throughout life. A fourth conclusion is that if 80% of the intellectual development occurs by the time children are age eight, then environment will have its greatest impact during these first eight years. The impact of environment seems to be greatest during the period of maximum growth; therefore, if a child is to experience an enriched environment, it ought to be during this important developmental period.

Historical Overview

Pestalozzi and Froebel

Pestalozzi, an educator in Switzerland, was the first modern theorist who stressed that parents should play a vital role in the education of their children. He can be hailed as the "Father of Parent Education" for this reason. The importance of the home also was emphasized by Pestalozzi. In his The Education of Man (1951), Pestalozzi

suggests that the mother is the first to nourish her child's body, and she should, therefore, be the first to nourish his mind. For children, the teachings of their parents will always be the core of their education/ knowledge and the school masters should concern themselves with putting a decent shell around that core. Pestalozzi believed that great harm was done to children by taking them away from home too soon and submitting them to artificial school methods. In the book, How Gertrude Teaches her Children (1915), Pestalozzi illustrates the methods he advocated.

If Pestalozzi was the Father of Parent Education, then Friedrich Froebel, born in 1782 in Oberweissbach, Germany, is the "Father of Kindergarten." Froebel recognized the importance of the mother in the development of the child. According to Froebel, the mother should be the first educator of the child. Froebel's Mother Plan and Nursery Songs With Finger Plays (1906), a book which includes verses, pictures, songs, and finger plays, was written for mothers to use with their children at home. Froebel organized his curriculum so the mother could assist the child in his or her development. Both mothers and children enjoyed language and interaction. Froebel's curriculum guided the mother when she was teaching her child.

Early U.S. Government Programs

In the United States, the government made impressive efforts to further education. Because of the depression and a need to support families by offering information on budget, clothing, health, physical care, and diet, the American government began providing parent education for the poor. During the depression (1929-39), the Works Progress Administration (W.P.A.) found a way for parents who were not active in women's clubs or parent-teachers associations to learn about home management practices. Funds were allocated by the W.P.A. for the creation of nursery schools and day care centers as part of a larger effort to generate jobs. Both unemployed teachers and people with no teaching experience were hired and trained as educators for the nursery schools (Powell, 1990). According to Almy (1990), the parents met on a weekly basis with one of these newly-assigned educators for discussions on family matters).

Additionally, during World War II, women were required to work outside their homes, which meant arrangements had to be made for the care of their small children. During World War II, the Lanham Act provided federal funds for child care centers until 1946. The centers were built and staffed by professionals and volunteers who considered the

long hours they worked to be their contribution to the war effort. Weekly meetings were held on topics of parental concern (Powell, 1990).

Head Start

Despite the demise of federal funding for daycare centers, the U.S. government continued to try to assist the poor and improve their opportunities for education. So, because of the desire for a "Great Society" where poverty would be eliminated, a "War on Poverty" was declared in 1964. According to Styfco and Zigler (1993), the U.S. Council of Economic Advisors reported that half of the nation's thirty million poor people were children, and that a large percentage of poor families were headed by a person with only a grade-school education. Minorities, the handicapped, and the economically disadvantaged were still underemployed, poverty stricken, and ignored. The federal government passed the Economic Opportunity Act in 1964 which created the Office of Economic Opportunity. Project Head Start was developed and administered by the Office of Economic Opportunity.

The Head Start program is a center-based preschool program that serves poor children ages three to five. Head Start is a full-day, school-year long program which requires that 90% of the children they serve be from

families whose income falls below the poverty line, and 10% of enrollment must consist of handicapped children. The basic program is designed to meet the developmental needs of poor children by optimizing their competence in social and school settings. The requirements for each program are to provide developmentally appropriate educational experiences, health screening and referral, mental health services, social services, nutrition education and hot meals, and parent involvement. Each program must adhere to the national regulatory standards as well as adapt to meet local needs and resources.

The Head Start program must provide children with a learning environment and varied experiences to help them mature socially, intellectually, physically, and emotionally in a manner appropriate to their age and stage of development toward the overall goal of social competence. Parents should be involved in the educational activities of the program to enhance their role as the principal influence on the child's education and development. Head Start should provide a planned program of experiences and activities which support and enhance the parental role. The program should assist parents in increasing their knowledge, understanding, skills, and experience in child growth and development. Parents should be able to participate in classroom and other program

activities as paid employees, volunteers, or observers. To be effective, the program should identify and reinforce experiences which occur in the home that parents can utilize as educational activities for their children.

In Datta's (1971) review of the research, three questions were investigated. The three questions were: (a) variability of Head Start classes, (b) immediate effects of Head Start, and (c) the longer-range impact of some Head Start programs.

Variability of Head Start Classes

According to Datta (1971), the programs vary from community to community as well as within communities. To expect uniform gains would be impossible. One reason why generalizations cannot be made is because of the heterogeneity of samples and environments. A study of the diversity of Head Start classes concluded that Head Start programs have varied in ways considered to be educationally significant. The study looked at teacher and parental characteristics, as well as classroom curriculum and methodology.

Short-Term Effects

According to Datta, many studies show that children's performance on general ability tests improved significantly with parental intervention. One explanation for these gains could be problems of design. Second, the differences

between the initial and final scores of the Head Start children, and between Head Start and comparison children, where available, represent changes in cognitive development and emotional maturity that are primarily attributable to the Head Start program. Third, changes occur, but they are attributable to the new institutional experience; any such new experience, including much cheaper ones or the kindergarten or first grade all children will enter, would do just as well. Fourth, Head Start children have become familiar with materials similar to those they encounter on the post-tests and these specific skills, rather than changes in overall development, are being measured. Fifth, there are motivational factors associated with test performance for low-income children. Because of the social interaction, the rise in scores may reflect the increasing comfort the disadvantaged child feels with a middleclass adult.

Longer Range Effects

According to Datta, the longer-range impact of some Head Start programs is that the developmental gap between Head Start and non-Head Start children is being closed, or has been eliminated by the end of the first year in school. A new environment has a one-time impact according to some researchers. Since the teacher is primarily interested in

the progress of the whole class, she must set the level of class activities below that which would be necessary to challenge the more advanced Head Start children, and instead give more attention to the group of children who are less advanced. The presence of more advanced Head Start children in a classroom may stimulate the development of non-Head Start children. If learning occurs in spurts followed by periods of consolidation, then during the first year of school, Head Start and non-Head Start children are at different stages of the learning cycle. Low-income children and their families require a different kind of program than that typically found in the school. It may be that when children are provided over a period of time with the necessary attention from teachers who are adequately trained and equipped with materials oriented to their needs, and when they and their families continue to receive services such as those provided in the Head Start program, they will continue to accelerate developmentally. Datta concluded that the problems illustrate the need for careful instrumentation and, most particularly, for research designs that will explicate inter-relationships among program and child variation. Long-term interventions need to be studied. Datta also concluded that there is a need to avoid quick judgments about Head Start and compensatory education on the basis of data from a program.

Parent Involvement

Most researchers, administrators, and educators believe that early intervention programs for preschool children that involve parents are more effective than those programs that do not involve parents. Based on a comprehensive analysis of previous studies, Datta (1971); Bronfenbrenner (1974); Henderson (1987); Lazar (1981); White (1985); and White, Bush, and Casto (1985) concluded that there are benefits to parent involvement in early intervention programs. However, another review of the research of early intervention programs by White, Taylor, and Moss (1992) concludes that there was no convincing evidence that parent involvement results in more effective outcomes.

Positive Effects

In this section, general research indicating positive effects of parent involvement is discussed first. Then, the research on the effects of Home Reading is reviewed. The section ends with a critique of research on parent involvement and the need for more studies.

Effects of IQ

According to Zigler and Trickett (1978), the most often utilized outcome measure over the history of early childhood intervention programs has been the IQ score, or

more typically, the magnitude of change in the child's IQ score. As a result, it became easy to conclude that children's programs were a success if they resulted in higher IQs and were a failure if they did not. Research found parents' involvement in early childhood intervention programs and their children's gains on several intelligence measures to be positively related.

Levenstein and Sunley's (1968) investigation compared verbal IQs of two matched groups of disadvantaged preschoolers. The two groups were compared before and after the experimental group was exposed for four months to stimulation of verbal interaction with their mothers through books and play material. The findings showed a significant rise in the verbal IQ of the experimental group. The findings suggest that environmental enrichment can raise the verbal intelligence of preschool children and that the children's mothers can be effective agents of such intervention.

Gilmer (1969) investigated diffusion effects within families involved in an intervention program. The diffusion effects studied were those that related to concepts defined as knowledge that can be shown by matching, recognition, or identification behavior. Superior performance by the maternal involvement groups was recognized as a manifestation of a level of conceptual development directly

associated with intra-family diffusion effects. Maximum intervention effects appear to result when mothers are involved with children in the program.

In the research of Karnes, Teska, Hodgins, and Badger (1970), early educational intervention was implemented at home by mothers to prevent developmental deficiencies in disadvantaged children by the age of four. Mothers were given an educational program to use at home to stimulate the cognitive and verbal development of their children. The mothers were given instructions in principles of teaching which emphasized positive reinforcement. Post intervention scores on the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale and the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic abilities of the children whose mothers completed the program were compared with children's test scores who received no intervention. The performances of the experimental children were significantly superior to the performances of the control group. The results of this study suggest that programs to train mothers can help prevent the inadequate cognitive and linguistic development of the disadvantaged child.

The research by Gray and Klaus (1970), called "The Early Training Project," was concerned with the development and periodic evaluation of procedures for improving the educability of young children from low-income homes. The major focus of parent involvement was the parent as

intervenor. A supplementary aspect of parent involvement was emotional support. The major concern of the study was to offset the progressive retardation found in school children who were living in deprived conditions.

In Levenstein's (1970) experiment, general and verbal IQs of three groups of low-income preschoolers were compared before and after exposure of the experimental group to seven months of home sessions stimulating verbal interaction in mother-child dyads. The experimental group made more highly significant cognitive gains than the two comparison groups. As a result of this experiment, the preschoolers made cognitive gains in an intervention program which capitalized on already existing positive intrafamily variables in low income families to enhance the child's cognitive growth while simultaneously strengthening family ties.

Goodson and Hess (1975) conducted an evaluative review of some contemporary concepts and programs that used parents as teachers of young children. The researchers reviewed evaluations of preschool programs for disadvantaged children. The project was to determine what effect various parent-training features had on short- and long-term gains in achievement. All of the programs reviewed had a parent training feature that was designed to teach parents how to prepare their preschool aged children

for school. The programs produced significant immediate gains in children's IQ scores, showed long-term effects on children's IQ and their school performance, and altered the teaching behavior of parents in a positive direction.

Slaughter's study (1983) used an intervention strategy to test the thesis that sociocultural environment, mediated by maternal attitudes and behaviors, influences black children's early development in educationally significant ways. The intellectual development of a control group of children was contrasted with that of children whose mothers were involved in two parent-education programs.

Child-rearing attitudes and behaviors of control mothers was contrasted with those in the parent-education programs. The focus of the study was on one area of socialization: parenting and the intellectual development of children. The discussion group mothers were significantly superior to the controls on the Loevinger Scale of Ego Development, a measure of expressed social values, and on observational measures of maternal teaching style. The mothers interacted more with their children and were more likely to expand on the children's ongoing play. The demonstration group children were superior to controls on the McCarthy verbal subscale at the final testing which was reflected in a higher average IQ score of the program children on the McCarthy scale.

In summary, according to Zigler and Trickett (1978), American social science has been terribly conflicted about the value of the standard intelligence test. Some social sciences have viewed it as a technological trap that has resulted in a calcification of our theoretical views and has misled us as to the essential nature of human development and the optimization of such development. Critics of the IQ have suggested or stated explicitly that the IQ score is easily employed as a tool of social injustice or political subjugation.

For example, the Westinghouse-Ohio report (1969) that the difference between the IQs of Head Start graduates and their classmates was insignificant at the end of the first grade was used as a justification to try to close down the program. Head Start was not intended to change IQ. Head Start was formed to help children do better in school. The correlation between IQ and school performance is about .40, which is not enough to use as a predictor.

According to Zigler and Trickett (1978), there are several reasons to use the IQ as a measure in the outcome evaluation of childhood intervention programs. First, the IQ tests are well-developed instruments, the psychometric properties of which are so well documented as to allow the user to avoid difficult measurement problems. Second, the ease of administration adds to the attractiveness of such a

measure if one employs the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test, the Ammons Full Range Vocabulary Test, or the Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Test. There are high correlations found between these tests and the longer Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale or the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children. Third, no other test has been found to be related to so many other behaviors of theoretical and practical significance. Since early childhood intervention programs are regarded as efforts to prepare children for school, the IQ is the best predictor of school performance is a compelling rationale for its use as an assessment criterion.

Academic Benefits

Numerous studies have examined the academic benefits of early childhood programs to children; however, only a few have studied the relationship of parents' involvement and children's achievement. Researchers studied varied programs that through varied methods taught parents methods for fostering the academic achievement of their children. Intervention programs well conceived and executed made some lasting changes (Schaefer, 1969).

Gordon's (1971) project was called "A home learning center approach to early stimulation." The purpose of the project was to investigate a home-oriented approach to intervention in the lives of young children in a way which

might help break the poverty cycle. The results of the project indicate that a home visit program improved cognitive performance of the children and positive attitudes and behaviors of mothers toward their children.

Rasdin's (1972) experiment of maternal involvement in a preschool program showed no significant differences among the children. Three groups of children were offered varying degrees of maternal involvement. One group of preschool children received no maternal involvement. Another group of preschool children received moderate maternal involvement. The third group of preschool children received intense maternal involvement. At the end of one year, no significant differences were found among the three groups of preschool children. However, in a follow-up study with the two groups of children with parent involvement, there was a significantly greater gain in test scores. The findings of the study suggest that a parent involvement program is important and the children will benefit in the long run.

In an investigation of Head Start centers with high levels of parent involvement, children performed higher on standardized tests than children from centers with low parent involvement (Mowry, 1972). The researchers used 20 Head Start centers across the United States. Standardized tests measuring cognitive and intellectual

development were used with the children. Self-report questionnaires were used with parents. Staff questionnaires were used to measure program quality. The children who performed higher had parents who saw themselves as more skilled, successful, and satisfied. The extent of parent involvement appeared to make more difference than the type of parent involvement.

Spregle's (1974) The Learning To Learn Program included parent involvement. The parents had to supplement the school curriculum with a "home curriculum." The Learning To Learn Program was a comprehensive approach to the education of children which integrated the child, teacher, parent, and curricular materials. The results of this study suggest that the children who participated in the program made significantly greater developmental gains than the control children.

A project to develop the parents' educational role in the home and to increase interaction between home and school was developed by the staff of the Frank Porter Graham Child Development Center in Chapel Hill, North Carolina (Gallagher, 1976). A significant improvement was shown on children's scores on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills. The project tested the contention that the most important goal of the schools is to provide support for the parents' educational role in the home, and that more

interaction between home and school will benefit a child academically and help to develop success-related behavior traits. The results showed that some parent-initiated activities were related to achievement as measured by the test scores.

Irvine's (1979) experiment using disadvantaged children showed that parent involvement had a highly significant effect on reasoning, verbal concepts, and school-related skills. The study was to determine whether the amount of time parents were involved in an experimental pre-kindergarten program in New York state was related to the performance of their 4-year-old children on each of three measures of cognitive achievement. The study found that parent involvement had a "highly significant effect" on general reasoning, as measured by the Walker Readiness Test for Disadvantaged Children. Irvine found that parent involvement had a highly significant effect on school-related knowledge and skills, as measured by the Cooperative Preschool Inventory. A significant relationship between parent involvement and achievement was found by testing knowledge of verbal concepts, as measured by the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test.

As the result of a study of parental beliefs and values, Schaefer and Edgerton (1985) suggested that parental modernity (sense of efficacy, active orientation,

relevant knowledge) positively correlated with the development of competence and motivation in children, while parenting authoritarianism (conforming values, external locus of control, prohibitive interventions) negatively correlated with lower child competence.

An intensive, family-oriented early childhood intervention program using home visits and neighborhood-based parent support groups was implemented (Cochran & Henderson, 1986). Positive effects in student achievement were produced when the children entered public school. The finding was that involvement in the program was associated with better performance in school and that the program tended to buffer the negative consequences of low socioeconomic status.

In summary, Schaefer (1969) suggested that parent-centered as contrasted to child-centered early intervention programs had equal immediate effectiveness, greater long-term effectiveness, and were less expensive. The evidence suggested that parents had great influence upon the behavior of their children, particularly their intellectual and academic achievement and that programs which taught parents skills in educating their children were effective supplements or alternatives for preschool education.

Longitudinal Studies

The question of whether intervention programs have more than a temporary impact on the development of children has been approached by longitudinal studies of the children's performance in school. In most cases the studies show that intervention does have a sustained effect which can be measured during the school years. School performance defined in terms of cognitive linguistic skills did seem to be significantly affected by early intervention programs.

Gray and Ruttle's (1976) study consisted of 51 low-income families, each with a toddler and at least one other child under age 5, who participated in a 5-year, home-based intervention study designed to help mothers become more effective educational change agents. Results tended to be modestly positive with mothers and toddlers, although not with the older children.

Guinagh and Gordon's (1976) study attempted to determine whether the project produced lasting effects on school performance and home-school relations. The program produced significant advances in reading and math tests when the children entered school, which were maintained at least through the third grade. The program trained mothers how to use learning materials at home. The results showed that a home visit program using paraprofessionals were

sustained for two to three years using simple materials, and led to gains that lasted through the fourth grade.

The Ypsilanti Perry Preschool Project, as studied by Weikart, Bond, and McNeir (1978) was one of the first preschool programs in the 1960s for disadvantaged children. One-half of the children in the experimental treatment received two years of preschool and weekly home visits by teachers with the mother and child. The remaining children received the same testing as the experimental group, but did not attend preschool or receive home visits. Children who participated in the experimental group scored significantly higher than the control-group children. The Perry Preschool Project continued to benefit children as they reached high school. The cost of the project was recovered because the preschool students required less costly forms of education as they progressed through elementary school.

Lazar and Darlington's (1978) long-term study shows that the children in the programs performed better in school and had significantly fewer assignments to special education classes or grade retention than the control group for many years after they completed the projects. Some of the programs studied were center-based, with a nursery school-type program where parents visited and observed. Other programs studied were home-based with educational

efforts directed toward training the mother as the major instrument of influence in the child's life. Other programs studied combined home and center, with a nursery school program combined with periodic home visits. The results found that individually and as a group the programs had lasting effects on the children's performance in school.

Weikart's et al. (1978) research, the Ypsilanti Preschool Curriculum Demonstration Project, was designed to find out if some approaches to compensatory preschool education for disadvantaged children were more effective than others under controlled experimental conditions. The project examined the effects of three preschool curriculum models on children's cognitive, linguistic, socio-emotional, and academic skills development. "The Language Training Curriculum," "The Cognitively Oriented Curriculum," and "The Unit-Based Curriculum" were the three curricula selected for comparison. Each child and mother received bi-weekly 90-minute home visits from one of the child's teachers. At the end of the first year, there was a large overall gain in cognitive development. Children in the experimental group were less likely to be held back a grade or placed in special education as the control group. Children who received home visits scored significantly higher on standardized achievement tests than children who did not receive home visits.

A study was done with disadvantaged children who participated in a 3-year preschool enrichment program with strong parent involvement (Scott & Davis, 1979). The children remained more advanced in basic skills through the third grade. The study evaluated the Home Start Program in Waterloo, Iowa. A prekindergarten enrichment program was used with the children. The researchers found no evidence that White children gained from the program; however, Black children scored significantly higher on the ITBS.

In Gott's (1980) study, a longitudinal test was done in Project HOPE (Home-Oriented Preschool Education). Parents were trained by paraprofessionals in the home to augment daily lessons broadcast on television to their children aged 3 to 5. The study showed that the children had higher achievement through the first few years of their school careers than children who received only TV lessons.

"Lasting Effects of Early Education: A Report From the Consortium For Longitudinal Studies" (Lazar & Darlington, 1982) was a study done by a group of investigators who collaborated on a research project. The researchers were Kuno, Cynthia and Martin Deutsch, Ira Gordon, Susan Gray, Merle Karnes, Phyllis Levenstein, Louise Miller, Francis Palmer, David Weikart, Myron Woolman, and Edward Zigler. The researchers had designed and conducted preschool

programs for children from low-income families during the 1960s. In 1975, the investigators pooled their original data and conducted a joint follow-up study. Lazar and Darlington coordinated the follow-up data collection and analyses.

The results showed that early education programs for children from low-income families had long-lasting effects in four areas: school competence, developed abilities, children's attitudes, and values and impact on the family. Program participation affected the mother's attitudes toward school performance and vocation choice. Children who participated in the early childhood programs surpassed their controls on the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test for several years after the program had ended. Program participants were significantly less likely to be assigned to special education.

Longitudinal studies (Deutsch & Deutsch, 1981; Gotts, 1980; Lazar & Darlington, 1982) conclude that quality preschool programs result in lasting benefits to children. The consensus of these researchers is that parent participation is a significant component of quality programs. Deutsch stated that although large gains of the preschool years were not repeated in the grades, experimental children did remain more advanced with respect to their age peers in the same schools. According

to Gray and Ruttle (1976), disadvantaged children placed in summer intervention programs in which summer activities were sequenced over time in small group settings, showed continued gains in public school. Home visits to work with the mothers provided a bridge for the child from one summer to the next summer.

Karnes, Teska, Hodgins, and Badger (1970) suggested that different types of intervention curricula may affect the continued intellectual performance of the child in the same type of public school. Deutsch et al. (1974), Sprigle (1974), and Gray and Ruttle (1976) reported a positive impact in school performance in the form of the experimental group's significant IQ gain over the control group. Weikart reported a significant difference but one which disappeared by the third grade. Deutsch, Sprigle, and Gray's programs provided some type of continuance into public school in the form of curricular or parent home training and Weikart's does not. Springle reported that the experimental children's school experience corresponded with the home experience. Children brought books home to read. Parents asked for materials for their children during the summer months.

Gray and Ruttle's (1976) report suggested that effective home training of the mother can act as a bridge to provide stability in transition from intervention to

school setting. Sprigle (1974) stated that the school should provide for the active involvement of parents and encourage their commitment to the objectives of the program by means of parent education programs and "homework" type activities.

Parent Involvement: As Readers

According to Haden and Fivush (1994), researchers and educators are placing tremendous emphasis on the importance of reading storybooks to preschoolers. Several studies have pointed to beneficial effects of reading on children's literacy development (Phillips, Norris, Mason, & Kerr, 1990; Whitehurst, Galco, Lonigan, Fischel, DeBaryshe, Valdez-Menchaca, & Caufield, 1988).

In Missouri, there is a program named "Parents as Teachers" (Winter, 1993). The program is a voluntary program designed for all families with children from birth to kindergarten entry. "Parents as Teachers" assists parents in acquiring the skills needed to help make the most of learning in the crucial years. Child development and parent-child activities which encourage language, intellect, curiosity, and social skills are covered in the program. A study done on the program when the children were three years of age showed that the children were more advanced than the comparison group in language, social development, problem solving, and other intellectual

abilities. A follow-up study was done as the children completed first grade which further substantiated the study done at age three. The children of "Parents as Teachers" were rated higher in all areas than the comparison children. Considerable research has been done to support the "Parents as Teachers" approach.

A study done by Newman and Roskos (1993) was designed to observe how parents' "active involvement" in educational activities of the classroom might influence their ideas about and practices in relation to literacy acquisition. In the study, parents were engaged as teachers with young children in a literacy-enriched play office setting, deliberately designed and arranged to elicit behaviors, language, and cultural routines associated with writing and reading in this context. The results of the study suggested that the parents' involvement in this setting enhanced their interactional skills to a modest degree in connection with young children's literacy acquisition. Parents became more responsive to children's initiatives, used more language than gestures in communicating, and engaged in more teaching interactions with children. At the end of the study, the parents had a greater respect for children as capable learners, and play was viewed as a means of learning literacy.

Leggett and Swank's (1994) study examined the nature of specific environmental processes and its relation to the early success of the developing young child through self-reported parental beliefs and behaviors toward education and learning. They found that maternal behaviors of learning and language stimulation and maternal beliefs of child rearing and schooling predicted significance in child development as measured by the Brigance Inventory of Early Development. Maternal beliefs and behaviors were related to maternal attendance to Head Start training sessions. According to these findings, mothers who believed in developmental child rearing beliefs of discipline, openness to change, and active learning are predicted to have children who will score higher on the developmental measures of the Brigance. The mothers who reported stimulating language development by allowing freedom of choice, playing games, and encouraging open discussion had children who developed more successfully than their peers.

Home Reading

Whitehurst's et al. (1994) study concerns the effects of time budgets and interactional style of teachers on the development of language and emergent literacy skills of children in Head Start. Parents of children in the classrooms were trained to engage in interactive book reading, and each child brought home a copy of the book

that was being used in the classroom during each week of the shared reading program. The children made gains as a function of engagement in shared book reading interactions, but only if they experience frequent one-on-one interactions with their parent or caregiver.

The focus of a study by Haden and Fivush (1994) was individual stylistic differences in the ways in which White, middleclass mothers converse with their preschoolers reading unfamiliar and familiar storybooks. Maternal storybook reading styles remained conceptually consistent over the 18-month time course of the study, although some elements of these styles appear to change from the first to the second time point. Results of the study indicate that all members of a given social class may not read or talk with their children in the same way.

A study reported by Paratore (1994) was designed to add to the literature in family literacy by examining the influence of an intergenerational approach to literacy on the literacy learning of adults and on the practice of shared literacy at home. The outcome studied was the influence of the project on adults and their resulting interactions with their children, increased emphasis on asking about homework, and in providing children help and increased visitation of the library.

A study by Allison (1994) examined to what extent teacher and parent interaction styles predict emergent reading level. The results found that within the range of the study, there are not measurable differences in the interaction style of both parent and teacher that account for variance in children's developmental progression in emergent reading. It appeared that teachers were more skillful than parents in employing high cognitive demand interactions. At home the parents' involvement was associated with higher emergent reading development. There is a possible complementary influence of home and school.

In a study by DeBaryshe, Binder, and Buell (1994), the purpose was to determine the extent to which parents hold code vs. meaning-oriented views about literacy instruction and whether parents' views affect the nature of the home literacy environment. The results for reading instruction beliefs indicate that parents hold distinct and coherent patterns of beliefs about how children acquire conventional literacy skills. The results suggest that careful attention be paid to children's attitudes towards reading and writing.

In a study by Paratore and Turpie (1994), parents were invited to contribute to literacy portfolios. The findings from this study found the parents of minority children are often very concerned with and interested in their

children's academic progress. The parents came to a better understanding of the classroom and the teachers came to a better understanding of the home. The collaborative portfolio gave parents and teachers common ground upon which they could frame a discussion about the child's literacy learning.

In a study by McCabe (1994), the relationship between parental interviewing style and subsequent child narrative skill was explored in a series of investigations. It was found that parental interviewing habits predate individual and cultural differences in the way children narrate past experiences. This study suggests that parents play a critical role in shaping many aspects of their children's narrative skill.

In a project described by Gorham and Keedy (1995) called "Changing Schools for Children," a key component to school readiness for children placed at risk of failure is support for parents through training and education. Intervention effects were analyzed on parent acquisition of knowledge and skills in helping them prepare their children for preschool, and the language development of the at-risk 4-year-olds whose parents participated in the program. Moderate effects were found on improved knowledge and skills. These parents demonstrated approximately a 60% participation rate in conducting learning activities with

their children, a growing awareness of the crucial role parents can plan in their children's language skills and more eagerness by the children to read and more parental communication with the preschool teacher about their children's progress than observed by this preschool teacher in previous classes. They found the language development of at-risk 4-year-old children improved significantly on Vocabulary skills ($p < .05$). There were no significant intervention effects on three other scales: Expressive Language, Receptive Language, and the Numbers, Letters, and Words.

Most of the studies in this review indicate that, based on the data, parent involvement in early intervention is beneficial. However, there are different opinions about parent involvement research.

Critiques of Parent Involvement Research

In a review of the research, several methodological problems must be noted. Bronfenbrenner (1974) notes that if IQ is used as a criterion for admission to programs, the initial gains are inflated by regression to the mean. This is responsible for the mistaken conclusion that the most deprived children are the ones who profit most from intervention programs. The opposite is the case with children whose parents are interested in their development and want to take advantage of opportunities for them; these

children are likely to be more advanced before intervention but their scores regress to the mean despite gaining more from an intervention program. Failure to control for differences in parents' motivation leads to spurious results.

Although evidence indicates that programs involving children from less deprived homes are likely to achieve more favorable results, another problem includes age since the effects of deprivation increase as the child gets older. An additional problem would be diffusion effects from the experimental to control group (i.e., the latter begins to adopt the practices of the former).

Some effects of preschool intervention in group settings show that early intervention produces substantial gains in IQ as long as the program lasts. The experimental groups do not continue to make gains when intervention continues beyond one year and the effects "wash out" after intervention is terminated (Bronfenbrenner, 1974). These findings raise the issue of the effect of program length.

Some effects of home-based intervention showed that the experimental groups made substantial initial gains and continued to hold up three or four years after intervention had been discontinued (Bronfenbrenner, 1974). The parents were volunteers randomly assigned to experimental or control groups. Participants in these programs were from

relatively less disadvantaged backgrounds. The parents began working with the children at an earlier age, and they emphasized one-to-one interaction between the child and adult.

Gordon (1971) found that parent intervention has more lasting effects the earlier it is begun, and can now be extended to the first year of life. When parent intervention precedes group intervention, there are enduring effects after the completion of the program, at least throughout the preschool years. The addition of a group program after parent intervention has been carried out for a one- or two-year period does not result in additional gains and may even produce a loss, at least when the group intervention is introduced as early as the third year of life. Intervention programs which place major emphasis on involving the parent directly in activities fostering the child's development are likely to have constructive impact at any age, but the earlier such activities are begun and the longer they are continued, the greater the benefit to the child.

Bronfenbrenner (1974) specified the elements that appear essential for the effectiveness of early intervention programs. The family seems to be the most effective and economical system for fostering and sustaining the child's development. First, without family

involvement, intervention is likely to be unsuccessful and what few effects are achieved are likely to disappear once the intervention is discontinued.

Second, ecological intervention is necessary for millions of disadvantaged families in our country. There should be a provision for adequate health care, nutrition, housing, employment, opportunity, and status for parenthood. Ecological intervention will require major changes in the institutions of American society.

Third, a long-range intervention program may be viewed in terms of five uninterrupted stages. The first stage is preparation for parenthood-child care, nutrition, and medical training. The second stage is adequate housing, economic security before children. The next stage is the first 3 years of life-establishment of a child-parent relationship to the child's home visits, group meetings to establish the parent as the primary agent of intervention. The next stage would be ages 4 through 6--exposure to a cognitively oriented preschool program, along with a continuation of parent intervention. And the last stage would be ages 6 through 12--parental support of the child's educational activities at home and at school; parent remains the primary figure responsible for the child's development as a person.

In contrast, however, is the argument by White, Taylor, and Moss (1992) of the fact that no information exists to argue that parent involvement in early intervention will lead to any of the benefits that are often claimed. White et al. claim that it is difficult to know whether the differences between the groups are attributable to the fact that parents were more heavily involved in one group than in the other, whether it was the setting in which the intervention took place (home vs. center), or whether it was the difference in the curriculum used in each of the groups. White et al. believe that the comparisons are so confounded with other variables that there is little evidence about the benefits of involving parents in intervention programs. These findings suggest that more research is needed.

However, according to DeBaryshe et al. (1994), home environments vary in the extent to which children are actually provided opportunities to engage in joint reading and teaching strategies used by family members during joint literacy interactions. Parents vary in their influence on children directly through the frequency of joint activity and the selection of interaction strategies.

In White, Taylor, and Moss's (1992) review of the research, they conclude that the benefits of involving parents in early intervention programs are not supported by

the evidence. Methodological weaknesses in all of these studies limit the credibility of the results. The conclusions of the analysis only apply to parent involvement programs in which the primary focus is to use parents as intervenors. Currently existing research tells nothing about involving parents in early intervention programs in other ways.

Much of the currently available data come from studies of relatively poor methodological quality. The type of parent involvement about which we have results from experimental studies is limited almost exclusively to using parents as intervenors for their children.

In the review by Henderson (1987), studies of effects of parent involvement on children's academic achievement and the performance of schools are investigated. Three broad approaches to parent involvement are those that attempted to improve the parent-child relationship in the context of the family, those that integrate parents into school programs, and those that build a strong relationship between school, family, and the larger community.

Despite the weaknesses noted by White et al. (1992), the bulk of the research finds that a positive learning environment at home has a powerful impact on student achievement. There were numerous studies documenting the effects of school-based programs which train low-income

parents to work with their children. The effects include significantly improved language skills, test performance, and school behavior, as well as the important effects on the general educational process. The last approach is illustrated by studies of community involvement which suggests that the degree of parent and community interest in good quality education is the critical factor in the impact of the school environment on the achievement and educational aspirations of students.

Further Research Needed

Future research should adhere to the standards so that the results will be unambiguous (White et al., 1992). There should be verification that the intervention was actually implemented as intended. Further research should use diagnosticians who are uninformed about the experimental conditions. Information should also be collected about the historical and contextual factors which may contaminate the results of the studies. More studies are needed to investigate the conditions for effective parent involvement and to verify the implementation of interventors.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of parent-child reading sessions on Head Start children's language development. The researcher was a Reading Specialist at the Arkansas Department of Education. Also, she was a reading teacher in the Arkansas schools. This chapter presents a description of methods and procedures under the following headings: (a) Design, (b) Subjects, (c) Procedures, (d) Instrumentation, (e) Data Collection, and (f) Analysis of the Data.

Design

The study was a quasi-experimental design utilizing pre- and post-tests for experimental and control groups. The parents were trained in reading techniques. The Head Start children in the experimental group were given the Expressive One-Word Picture Vocabulary Test and the Receptive One-Word Picture Vocabulary Test at the beginning of the study and at the end of the study. The Sullivan-Keller faculty gave all of the children the Developmental Profile II at the beginning of the school

year and at the end of the school year. From the list of Head Start children who were given the WPS at the beginning of the school year and at the end of the school year, 16 names were randomly selected to serve as a control group.

A survey was given to the participating parents of the experimental group at the beginning of the study. From the survey and discussions with parents during the training session, some qualitative data were collected.

Prior to conducting the study, the investigator contacted the principal of Sullivan-Keller to explain the purpose of the study. The study also was reviewed and approved by the Executive Director of Research and Development at the central office of the Denton Independent School District. A Human Subjects application was filed with the university. The investigator met with the lead teacher of each Head Start classroom to explain the research objectives and procedures. Permission letters were sent to parents of all students in the Head Start classrooms.

A parent-trainer teacher was assigned to assist the researcher by the principal. The parent-trainer teacher offered the use of her office/conference room for the researcher's training sessions and conferences. She also rewrote the parent letters included in Appendix B that were

sent to some of the parents, when some of the parents could not understand the first letter. Because the parent training was only in English, the parent-trainer teacher removed the letters for the parents of Hispanic children. The researcher had prepared 120 letters for the parents. Because of the language restriction, about 84 letters were sent home to the parents. There were 20 responses. The researcher made contact through phone calls to the parents to remind them of the scheduled meetings. Sometimes the researcher had to make several calls to some of the parents in order to make contact with them. There were parents who agreed to come to the meetings but never showed up. There were 2 children who moved and 2 who dropped out, and 16 parent-child pairs completed the study. The low response rate is a limitation of the study and a problem that needs to be addressed in planning additional research.

The researcher began the proceedings of the study in August (see Appendix I). The first contact was with the principal of the school in the last week of August. The second contact with the principal was the first week of September when he initiated the first contact with the parent-trainer. The first contact with the teachers was the second week of September when the researcher gave them the parent-consent letters to send to the parents by the

students. The first contact with the parents was by letter when the parent-consent letters were sent to them by the students. The first contact with the children was the third week of October when the researcher gave the children the pre-test. The final contact with the children was in April when the researcher gave the post-test to the children.

Subjects

The subjects were comprised of 16 children and parent pairs. The children were 4-year-old Head Start students from Sullivan-Keller Instructional Center in the Denton Independent School District in Denton, Texas. Of the 16 children who participated in the study, 2 were female and 14 were male; 15 were White, no children were Black, no children were Hispanic, and 1 child was East Indian.

There were 18 parents who gave their consent to participate in the study; however, 2 of the children-parent pairs dropped out of the study in December. The researcher waited as long as 2 hours for some of the parents to show up.

Training Sessions

Two training sessions were delivered. One was in November and included a survey, demonstrations, and discussion. The second training session in December

included discussions of home reading sessions, book exchange, and reading-aloud demonstration.

Training Session I

The session was supposed to begin at a specific time, but some of the parents came in 30 minutes to an hour late. The researcher waited as long as 2 hours for more parents to come. The researcher then met with late-arriving parents individually in order to train them to use the reading techniques. The training seemed to be perceived by the parents as something other than an organized session.

At the first training session, the researcher prepared name tags for each parent. Parents came in intermittently. Attendance was recorded on a chart by the researcher. The researcher welcomed the parents and introduced the study. Next, she passed out a survey to each parent (see Appendix E) soliciting information about home reading practices. Next a handout (see Appendix F) detailing steps for reading to children was distributed. The handouts contained techniques for reading to children. There were questions on the handouts to ask the children before and after the reading. She explained the techniques on the handouts. The steps for reading to children were taken from Integrated Learning Workshops by Williams (1990). The researcher, then, went over the suggestions on the handouts

for reading to children. The researcher read aloud a book. She explained that a reader should use expression when reading to a child and make it interesting. Then, she asked the parents questions about the handout. A discussion about the steps for reading to children followed.

The researcher explained to the parents how to focus the children's attention on the cover of the book by asking questions. Finally, the researcher demonstrated reading aloud techniques by reading the book Mrs. Wishy-washy by Joy Cowley (1990) (see Appendix C).

The researcher modeled portions of the language found in the text. After the reading, she reminded the parents of ways of questioning and guiding children, through natural conversation and observations to elicit the vocabulary and meaning of the study.

Training Session II

The second meeting was scheduled for 3 weeks after the first meeting in December. Only 7 parents attended the second meeting. The researcher prepared name tags for the parents. She recorded the attendance on the record sheet. The researcher went over the steps for reading to children (see Appendix G). She read a book to the parents and reviewed the questioning strategies. A discussion followed between the researcher and the parents concerning the home

reading sessions (see Appendix D). Suggestions were made by the researcher for places to find books.

Books

The researcher attempted to furnish the reading materials for the study. The researcher told the parents that they had the option of using their own reading materials. The reading materials could be books, poetry, or other reading materials. The books (see Appendix H) were collected from book stores or borrowed by the researcher.

The researcher used plastic bags to carry the books to the children. Five books and a list of the books were placed in each bag and given to each parent at the first training session. The researcher instructed the parents to return the bag of books on Friday with the children to the Head Start Center and the researcher would pick them up and leave another bag of books to be used during the following week. The children did not return the books every week.

Instrumentation

According to Gardner (1990b), the Receptive One-Word Picture Vocabulary Test is an individually administered, norm-referenced test designed for use with children ages 2 through 11 years, 11 months old. Each test plate consists

of four illustrations from which the child is asked to select the picture that matches the word presented orally by the examiner. The purpose of this test is to obtain an estimate of a child's one-word hearing vocabulary based on what he has learned from home and formal education. The test provides information about a child's understanding of language.

According to Gardner, reliability refers to the consistency from one set of measurements to another. The estimate for reliability that was employed for the test was Cronbach's alpha, which is an average of all possible split-half reliabilities. The reliability coefficients reflect the internal consistency of the test for children at each age level. These coefficients range from .81 to .93, with a median value of .90. The values are all within the range acceptable for a reliable and consistent measurement.

According to Gardner, the validity of the test is the accuracy with which it assesses the characteristic or behavior that it is designed to measure. The coefficients range from a low of .23 to a high of .70, with a median value of .41. In the interpretation of the validity coefficients the user should recall that the raw score range is 100 points.

According to Gardner (1990a), the Expressive One-Word Picture Vocabulary Test is a well-normed and well-standardized test used by professionals to determine a child's expressive one-word picture vocabulary. The test is of great value in obtaining a valid estimate of a child's ability to form an idea or concept of a picture or an object. The test was developed to assist professionals in obtaining a quick and valid estimate of a child's expressive language reported in standard scores.

The purpose of the Expressive One-Word Picture Vocabulary Test is to obtain a basal estimate of a child's verbal intelligence by means of the child's acquired one-word expressive picture vocabulary. The quantity and quality of a child's vocabulary are determined by the ability of a child to express in words what he or she has learned from the environment and from formal education. The extent of a child's vocabulary is reflected in how well the child is able to process language that has been learned from what is visually perceived and auditorily perceived so that the child can make verbal identifications of pictures. The test was designed for children 2 to 12 years of age (Gardner, 1990a).

Reliability coefficients were calculated using the Kuder-Richardson formula (KR-20). This formula yields an

average of all split-half reliabilities for the test. The resulting coefficients provide a measure of the internal consistency of the test. Reliability coefficients for KR-20 range from 0.84 to 0.92, with a median reliability of 0.90 (Gardner, 1990a).

The validity of the test was obtained through correlations of scaled scores from the final form of the test with scaled scores, from various other educational and psychological tests. The tests were administered concurrently as part of the standardization procedures. The validity correlation is 0.59 (Gardner, 1990a).

The Developmental Profile II (1985) is a test developed by Alpern, Boll, and Shearer, and published by Western Psychological Services. This is an inventory designed to assess a child's functional, developmental age level. The test evaluates five areas of development which are physical age, self-help age, social age, academic age, and communication age. The reliability internal consistency coefficients are .87 for Academic and .83 for Communication. Validity coefficient is .76.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The major purpose of this study was to examine the effects of parent involvement on preschool children's language development. Based on the review of the literature, it appeared that the parent as an interventor could have positive effects on children's vocabulary development. This chapter presents the results of the data collected from an investigation into the effects that parents reading to children and interacting with them has on the children's language development.

Data were analyzed in two ways. The survey and training session results are briefly reported qualitatively, and the pre- and post-tests results are reported using quantitative methods.

Results

Research Questions

1. There is a difference in parents reading to their children after training than before.
2. There is a difference in the quality of parents reading to their children after the training.
3. How was the training perceived by parents?

Quantitative

Hypothesis:

The quantitative results address the hypothesis of the study: There will be no significant difference at the .05 level between the mean scores on the WPS between experimental and control groups.

In order to address the hypothesis of this study, the data were analyzed by two unique methods. First, the Experimental and Control groups were compared on the Academic and Communication variables by analysis of covariance, using the pre-test as the covariate. This analysis controlled for any pre-test differences which may have existed between the two groups, revealing post-test mean differences one would expect to find if all Subjects were equal on the pre-test. Secondly, the data for each group separately were submitted to the Sign Test for assessing the significance of pre- to post-test changes. Data for the Experimental group included the measures on the WPS (1985) Academic and Communication and the Gardner (1990) Expressive and Receptive variables. Data for the Control group included only the Academic and Communication variables of the WPS (1985).

Data for the Academic and Communication variables were submitted to analysis of covariance. The Control and

Experimental groups were compared on the post-test variable while controlling for the pre-test variable. This analysis has the potential of revealing post-test group differences which would be expected to occur given that all Subjects were equal on the pre-test.

The analyses of Academic and Communication variables indicated no statistically significant difference between the groups on the adjusted post-test means (see Table 1).

However, standard and raw score data for the Academic and Communication variables, and for the Expressive and Receptive variables, were submitted to the Sign test for pre- to post-test differences. These analyses included only the Experimental group. All of the tests revealed statistically significant gain (see Table 2).

Data for the Academic and Communication variables were submitted to the Sign test for pre- to post-test differences. These analyses included only the Control group. Both the tests revealed statistically significant gain (see Table 3).

It should be noted that while both the Control and Experimental groups showed significant gain, the Experimental group gain was more widespread than that of the Control group. These results constitute evidence in support of a positive effect on language development. Descriptive statistics can be found in Table 4.

Table 1

Analysis of Covariance Between Experimental and ControlGroups

Source	<u>SS</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	Sig. of <u>F</u>
WITHIN CELLS	2949.74	29	101.72		
COVARIATE (<u>r</u> =.50)	1031.01	1	1031.01	10.14	.003*
GROUP	13.40	1	13.40	.13	.719

Adjusted and Estimated Means
Variable .. Academic

CELL	Obs. Mean	Adj. Mean
Control	60.75	59.97
Experimental	57.88	58.66

Source	<u>SS</u>	<u>DF</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	Sig. of <u>F</u>
WITHIN CELLS	1880.70	29	64.85		
COVARIATE (<u>r</u> =.67)	1559.17	1	1559.17	24.04	.000*
GROUP	43.41	1	43.41	.67	.420

Adjusted and Estimated Means
Variable .. Communication

CELL	Obs. Mean	Adj. Mean
Control	56.44	55.83
Experimental	57.56	58.17

*p < .05.

Table 2

Sign Tests on Pre- to Post-Change for Experimental Subjects

Academic

Cases

0	-	Diffs	(ACPOST LT ACPRE)	
16	+	Diffs	(ACPOST GT ACPRE)	(Binomial)
0		Ties		2-Tailed $\underline{P} = .0001$
$\overline{16}$		Total		

Communication

Cases

0	-	Diffs	(COMPOST LT COMPRE)	
15	+	Diffs	(COMPOST GT COMPRE)	(Binomial)
1		Ties		2-Tailed $\underline{P} = .0001$
$\overline{16}$		Total		

Expressive (raw)

Cases

0	-	Diffs	(EXPOSTR LT EXPRER)	
16	+	Diffs	(EXPOSTR GT EXPRER)	(Binomial)
0		Ties		2-Tailed $\underline{P} = .0001$
$\overline{16}$		Total		

Expressive (standardized)

Cases

0	-	Diffs	(EXPOSTS LT EXPRES)	
15	+	Diffs	(EXPOSTS GT EXPRES)	(Binomial)
1		Ties		2-Tailed $\underline{P} = .0001$
$\overline{16}$		Total		

Table 2 (continued)

Receptive (raw)

Cases

0	-	Diffs	(RECPOSTR LT RECPRES)	
16	+	Diffs	(RECPOSTR GT RECPRES)	(Binomial)
0		Ties		2-Tailed $\underline{P} = .0001$
$\overline{16}$		Total		

Receptive (standardized)

Cases

0	-	Diffs	(RECPOSTS LT RECPRES)	
15	+	Diffs	(RECPOSTS GT RECPRES)	(Binomial)
1		Ties		2-Tailed $\underline{P} = .0001$
$\overline{16}$		Total		

 $\underline{P} < .05.$

Table 3

Sign Tests on Pre- to Post-Change for Control Subjects

Academic

Cases

3	-	Diffs	(ACPOST LT ACPRE)	
12	+	Diffs	(ACPOST GT ACPRE)	(Binomial)
1		Ties		2-Tailed $\underline{P} = .0352$
<u>16</u>		Total		

Communication

Cases

3	-	Diffs	(COMPOST LT COMPRE)	
12	+	Diffs	(COMPOST GT COMPRE)	(Binomial)
1		Ties		2-Tailed $\underline{P} = .0352$
<u>16</u>		Total		

 $\underline{P} < .05.$

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for Experimental and Control Groups

Variable	Mean	Std. Dev.	Minimum	Maximum	Valid N Label
<u>Experimental Group</u>					
ACPRE	45.38	9.93	28	64	16
ACPOST	57.88	12.76	40	78	16
COMPRES	45.63	9.27	30	63	16
COMPOST	57.56	11.56	32	71	16
EXPRER	28.50	8.05	22	47	16
EXPOSTR	47.06	11.25	33	70	16
EXPRES	101.75	16.40	88	145	16
EXPOSTS	117.56	17.12	96	145	16
RECPRES	38.44	13.46	18	66	16
RECPOSTR	56.06	15.40	37	83	16
RECPRES	106.06	17.65	79	145	16
RECPOSTS	120.44	19.39	97	145	16
<u>Control Group</u>					
ACPRE	48.19	11.06	28	70	16
ACPOST	60.75	10.12	42	74	16
COMPRES	47.19	9.30	34	66	16
COMPOST	56.44	9.78	36	70	16

Quantitative: Summary

The Experimental and Control groups showed no statistically significant mean differences on either the Academic or the Communication variable, as revealed by the analyses of covariance. However, results of the Sign Test lend support to the conclusion that the treatment was effective. No fewer than 15 Experimental Subjects demonstrated a pre- to post-test increase, with only one Subject remaining the same on Communication, and the standardized Expressive variables. All 16 Experimental Subjects increased from pre- to post-testing on the other four variables. However, Sign Tests performed on the Control group revealed for both the Academic and Communication variables, only 12 Subjects increased from pre- to post-testing without intervention, while three Subjects showed actual declines from pre-test, with one Subject remaining the same. Results of these latter sign tests lend support to the conclusion that the treatment was effective. Therefore, implementation of the reading training did affect children's language development in this investigation. The findings resulting from the data indicated:

1. Significant increases occurred from pre- to post-test on Academic and Communication variables for the Experimental Group.

2. Significant increases occurred from pre- to post-test on Expressive and Receptive variables for the Experimental Group.

3. Significant gains in the Experimental group were more widespread than that of the Control group which can be interpreted as evidence in support of a positive effect of the treatment.

Qualitative

A survey (see Appendix E) was given to each parent at the first training session. The survey was designed by the researcher. Responses on the survey revealed that most of the parents (14) said that they read to their children all the time. Only 2 parents said that they read to their children only sometimes. There were 12 parents who said they encouraged their children to look at picture books and to describe what is happening.

However, 5 parents reported that they never take their children to the library. There were 3 people who responded that they never make predictions before reading a story, and 3 parents responded that they never encourage their children to create stories and illustrate them.

Research Question 1

Even though most of the parents reported on the survey that they were reading to their children at home before the

training, they also claimed to be reading the new books in the packet to their children in response to the training.

Research Question 2

During the discussions at the second training session, the parents mentioned using the training suggestions. They seemed to view the reading techniques favorably. Some parents made appreciative comments about the techniques. Therefore, it is probable that the training suggestions were implemented and that the quality of the participating parents' reading improved. However, the researcher could not verify the claims of the parents either about the extent of their reading or the quality or style of their reading with their children. Therefore, research questions 1 and 2 do not have definitive results, and the lack of results imply that a more intensive research design would be needed to answer these questions.

Research Question 3

The third question addresses changing parents' attitudes about reading to their children. The significance of this change is detailed in Glen and McBride (1994). In this study, it would seem that the attitudes of parents who participated did change. However, the small response to the invitation to participate, the problems with attendance,

tardiness, book exchange, and so forth, suggest that the training procedures were not perceived as convenient or important to many parents.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

According to literature review (DeBaryshe, Binder, & Buell, 1994), the ability to function successfully within an interactive shared book reading activity is one factor that may predict later achievement and success of school age children, adolescents, and adults. Limited research is available regarding direct experimental manipulations of parental involvement as a child treatment compared to no-treatment studies. This study explored the effects of interaction between preschool aged children and their parents at home during a reading activity. In this chapter is a discussion of the findings, conclusions, implications, and recommendations for further research.

Summary

Subjects were 16 children-parent pairs (5 females and 11 males) enrolled in a Head Start center in Denton, Texas. The control group were from a Texas Head Start Center. Children ages 3 years to 5 years attended the Head Start classrooms.

Research Questions

1. Do parents read more to their children after training than before?
2. Does the training change the quality of parents reading to their children?
3. How was the training perceived by parents?

Hypothesis

The hypothesis was tested at the .05 level of significance:

There will be no significant difference at the .05 level between the mean scores on the WPS between experimental and control groups.

Training I and Training II, researcher demonstrations, book distributions, and discussions about reading procedures suffered from various difficulties, such as low attendance, tardiness, and delays in exchanging books. Based on statistically significant test results, the reading project appeared to be effective. The results of this study indicate that effort directed toward storybook reading and a related activity enhanced the development of vocabulary in children. Encouraging interaction between the child and the parent involving reading had positive results. Training parents to implement interactive strategies enhanced the development of the child's language skills.

The qualitative findings appear to support research by McBride (1994) that parent behaviors and attitudes do change as they become involved in their children's schools. This finding is consistent with a similar study conducted with low-income parents (Gorham & Keedy, 1995). As suggested by Snow (1991), the results clearly underscore that successful learning experiences can be planned and fostered as regular interactions between parents and their preschool children.

Based on this study's findings, parent training programs of short duration can be an effective way to achieve an objective. According to Gorham and Keedy (1995), research on children's storytelling has demonstrated a relation to comprehension skills and early reading, writing, and logical thinking and enhanced social skills.

Gorham and Keedy (1995) suggested that intensive interventions produce more opportunities for parents to try a skill, adapt it for use at home, and to incorporate these skills as routine interactions with their children. They suggested that it was important to discuss parental practices in low-income, high-risk communities with participants to effect positive changes in behaviors acknowledged as ineffective.

This study found just as did Gorham and Keedy (1995) that if schools want to support parent efforts in preparing

their children for school, intervention programs should be offered on a continuous basis throughout the school year, with some thought given for schedules of working parents. The research by Fuerst and Fuerst (1993) found that children whose parents were involved with a parent training program sustained over time gained the greatest benefits from the preschool experience.

Implications for Further Research

Reviews of the research by Bronfenbrenner (1974) and White et al. (1992) suggest low participation rate of parents as a methodological problem in studies of parent involvement. This study found that the low participation rate of the parents to be a major problem in this study also. Another problem was the lack of verification of implementation of reading techniques and the parent's claim on the survey that they were already reading to their children. The following implications are made for further research:

Further research needs to be done on interventions strategies to positively affect parent involvement in children's learning. Because of difficulty of getting participation, the researcher would develop a rapport with parent groups before the study began.

Further research needs to be done to determine effects of planned interventions of parents in children's language development. Because of the difficulty of delivering the training, the researcher would consider time constraints of the parents and design better schedules for the training.

Further research needs to be done on the comparison of gains made by Head Start males versus females in parent intervention programs using reading strategies. The sample was restricted to white males but the research design should extend to females, other ethnic groups, and other social economic groups.

More research is needed and should be appropriately designed and focused on the types of parent involvement which have not been addressed in past research.

Based on the results of this study and the existing literature, there is a need for additional research regarding parent involvement in early intervention programs. Samples involving young children have typically been longitudinal, interventional, and cross-sectional in design. Future studies should include the physical and emotional aspects of the children.

Further research also should endeavor to include subjects of diverse socioeconomic and ethnic backgrounds. Much of the available literature focuses on children who

attend Head Start or are at risk. Little was found by this researcher about parent involvement of preschool children in more diverse settings such as those enrolled in community day care and other child care programs. The parent involvement of children who have not experienced out-of-home care also need to be included in future research studies. A comparison of different groups of children from a diversity of backgrounds would facilitate a clearer understanding of the relationship between early childhood programs and parental involvement.

According to White et al., the almost exclusive focus in past research on using parents primarily as supplemental intervenors with their children may be the wrong approach. Very little previous research has verified that the intended parent involvement program was well implemented or that parents participated to the desired degree. Many good ideas fail to produce expected results because of poor implementation. Implementation is as important as design of training. Carefully designed research with extensive attention to scheduling, training content, parent rapport, ethnic, gender and economic variety should help researchers to better evaluate the effectiveness of parent involvement programs.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Consent Form

TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY
SUBJECT CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Parental Influences in Getting Children "Ready to Learn"

Investigator: Brenda Stevens

Office Phone: (817) 898-2271

You are being asked to participate in a study to provide you with strategies for helping your child with reading activities. These activities will be related to the types of classroom reading activities your child will experience in school. The goal is to help you interact with your child in reading activities. You will be trained in the use of these activities through interactions with the researcher and videotape demonstrations. You will also be asked to respond to questions about how you are using the reading activities with your child. At the beginning and end of the study, your child will be asked to complete a vocabulary test. For this test, a word is pronounced and the child is asked to point to a picture for the word. The study will last for approximately three months with parent training sessions held every two weeks. Training sessions will be approximately 1 to 2 hours each.

To become a parent/child team for this study, you will need to sign the consent form, participate in the activity training sessions, carry out reading activities with your child, and respond to the questions about how you and your child do the activities. The researcher will be responsible for keeping all information confidential. Your and your child's name will not be released in any way. All information from your interviews and your child's vocabulary test will be coded to protect confidentiality.

A benefit expected from this study is that children may be familiar with the types of reading activities they will use in school. Parents may also learn about a variety of reading activities to use with their children.

Your participation in the study is voluntary. If you refuse to participate there is no penalty or loss of privileges for you or your child. You may end your involvement in the study at any time without penalty or loss of privileges for you or your child. Signing this consent form gives the researcher permission to consider you and your child for participation in the study.

I hereby authorize Brenda Stevens to carry out the procedures for this study. An offer to answer all of my questions regarding the study has been made and I have been given a copy of the dated and signed consent form. If alternative procedures are more advantageous to me, they have been explained. A description of the possible attendant discomfort and risks reasonable to expect have been discussed with me. I understand that I may terminate my participation in the study at any time. I understand that no medical service or compensation is provided to the subjects by the university as a result of injury from participation in research. If you have any concerns about the way this research has been conducted, contact the Texas Woman's University Office of Research and Grants Administration (898-3375).

Subject/s Signature - Date

Researcher's Signature-Date

If minor, parent or guardian's signature is required:

Father/Mother or Guardian - Date

Appendix B

Parent Letter by Parent-Trainer

Sullivan-Keller Early Childhood Center
1125 Davis
Denton, TX 76201
(817) 382-1591

November 18, 1994

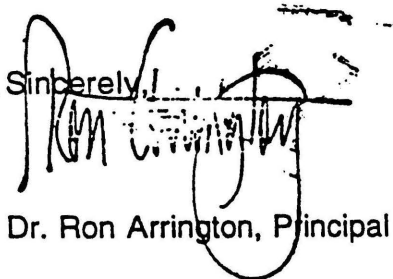
Dear Parents,

This semester at Sullivan-Keller we have a graduate student, Brenda Stevens, who is conducting research at our campus on "Parental Influences in Getting Children Ready to Learn". Parents are being asked to participate in the study to provide information and strategies for helping children with reading activities.

All parent participation in the study is voluntary, and further information about the study can be found in the attached form. If you would like to be part of the study, please fill out the parent consent form and return it to your child's classroom teacher.

Thank you for your support!

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Ron Arrington", written over a horizontal line.

Dr. Ron Arrington, Principal

Appendix C

Training I

TRAINING I

Steps for Reading to Children

1. Introduce Mrs. Wishy-washy. Show the child the cover. This story is about Mrs. Wishy-washy. What can you tell me about her? Why do you think she has her hands on her hips? I wonder who she is going to wash.

2. Read the story and adopt appropriate voices for the animals and a very bossy tone for Mrs. Wishy-washy!

3. At the end of the story, encourage impromptu responses and then ask questions. What happened? Were the animals naughty? Why? Was Mrs. Wishy-washy bossy? What did she say?

Questions for Group Discussion

1. Does anyone read to their children using these steps?

2. Who can give me an example of a book that they read using these steps?

3. Anyone else have a good example?

4. Who has another good idea?

Appendix D

Training II

TRAINING II

Training Session II

Following are the steps taken at training session II:

1. Prepare name tags.
2. Record attendance.
3. Go over the steps for reading to children.
4. Read aloud a book. Then ask the parents questions.
5. Discussion
 - a. Have parents discuss their experiences with their children since the last training session.
 - b. Would you like to tell me about the way in which your reading went this past week?
 - c. Are you having difficulties? Spend as much time as possible discussing alternatives the parents having difficulty might try.

Appendix E

Survey

LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES PARENT SURVEY

Please mark the column that best describes your situation.

	Always	Sometimes	Never
1. We read to our child.	()	()	()
2. We read quality books to our child.	()	()	()
3. We have an ample supply of reading material for our child at home.	()	()	()
4. We have discussions before and after reading a story.	()	()	()
5. We encourage our child to retell a story after it has been read.	()	()	()
6. We make predictions before reading a story.	()	()	()
7. We visit the Library with our child.	()	()	()
8. We encourage our child to create stories and illustrate them.	()	()	()
9. We involve our child directional activities such as cooking from recipes or assembling toys.	()	()	()
10. We involve our child in family discussions.	()	()	()
11. We encourage our child to look at picture books and describe what is happening.	()	()	()

Appendix F

Handout I

Reading To Children

Introduce the story.

Begin with a discussion of the cover of the book. Predict what the story might be about using clues in the pictures on the cover.

" Today's story is about _____."

" What can you tell me about _____?"

" Why do you think _____?"

" I wonder _____?"

Read the story adopting appropriate voices for the characters. Point to each word as you read it.

Once or twice, stop at predictable points in the story and ask, "What do you think is going to happen next?"

At the end of the story, encourage responses and then ask questions.

Questions:

Characters (people, animals, toys....)

1. Who are the main characters in your story?
2. Do you like them? Tell me why.
3. Do you dislike them? Tell me why.
4. Choose one character. Why is this character important in the story?
5. Do you know anyone like the characters?
6. Do any of the characters change?
7. Do any characters do things that you think are good?
8. Do any characters do things that you think are wrong?

Story

1. Tell me the main things that happened in the story.
2. Were you able to guess what was going to happen at the end?
3. Can you think of another way the story might have ended?
4. What do you think was the best part of the story? Why?

Setting

1. Where does the story take place?
2. Tell me what the place was like?
3. Have you ever been to a place like this?
4. Did the story take place a long time ago?
5. Is it about the future?

6. Is it happening now?

Mood

1. How did you feel while the story was being read?
2. Why did you feel that way?
3. What was the funniest part?
4. What was the saddest part?
5. What was the most exciting thing that happened?
6. What do you remember most about the story?

Concepts of Print

- "Before we begin our story, show me the cover of the book?"
- "Show me the back of the book."
- "Show me the title page."
- "Where is the title?"
- "Where is the author?"
- "Where does the story begin?"
- "Show me the first page."
- "Show me the last page."
- "Where does the story end?"
- "Show me a word."
- "Show me a letter."
- "Where do we begin on a page?"
- "Which way do we go?"
- "Where do we go when we get to the end of the line?"

Appendix G

Handout II

Reading to Children

Explain

Predict

Describe

Label

Mood

Pretend

Appendix H

Book List

BOOK LIST

Adams, W. (1986). Three short short fairy tales: Jack and the beanstalk, Hansel and Gretel and Little Red Riding Hood. San Diego, CA: Readers Theatre Script Service.

Arno, E. (1967). The gingerbread man. New York: Scholastic.

Barton, B. (1991). Three Bears. USA: Harper Collins.

Bemelmans, L. (1981). Madeline's rescue. New York: Picture Puffin.

Birdwell, N. (1970). The Witch's Christmas. New York: Scholastic.

Bottner, B. (1979). Messy. New York: Random House.

Brandenberg, A. (1963). Johnny Appleseed. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Brett, J. (1989). Beauty and the beast. New York: Clarion Books.

Brett, J. (1990). The Mitten. New York: Scholastic.

Bridwell, N. (1988). Clifford's birthday party. New York: Scholastic.

Brown, M. (1954). Cinderella. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

Brown, M. (1957). The three billy goats gruff. New York: Harcourt, Brace.

Brown, M. (1961). Once a mouse. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

Brown, M. (1969). How, hippo. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

Brown, M. (1986). Arthur's teacher trouble. Boston: Little Brown.

Burton, V. L. (1969). The little House. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Carroll, L. (1976). Alice's adventures through the looking glass. Illustrated by J. Clarke & R. Irvine.

Chirinian, H. (1988). Betsy Bunny's Birthday. Illustrated by M. Fraser. New York: Chex Books.

Cowley, Joy. (1990). Mrs. Wishy Washy. San Diego, CA: Wright Group.

Crain, I. (1979). The three bears and chicken little: Two traditional folk tales. San Diego, CA: Readers Theatre Script Service.

Czernecki, S., & Rhodes, T. (1982). Illustrated by S. Czernecki. New York: Hyperion Books for Children.

Daly, K. (1980). Christmas joys. Illustrated by M. McClain. New York: Checkerboard Press.

D'Argo, L. (1990). Zoo babies. International: Publications International.

Demi. (1990). The empty pot. New York: Henry Holt.

Demi. (1990). The magic boat. New York: Henry Holt.

De Regniers, B. S. (1972). Red Riding Hood. Illustrated by E. Gorey. Hartford: Atheneum.

Eastman, P. D. (1988). Are you my mother? New York: Random House.

Elkin, B. (1957). Six foolish fishermen. Illustrated by K. Evans. Chicago: Children's Press.

Forsse, K. (1985). The Airship. Fremont, CA: Alchemyll.

Fritz, J. (1972). Fish head. Illustrated by M. Simont. Toronto: Longmans Canada Limited.

Hall, N. (1980). The big enough helper. Illustrated by T. O'Sullivan. Racine, WI: Golden Press.

Hughes, S. (1983). Alfie gives a hand. New York: Mulberry Books.

Ives, P. (1992). Goldilocks and the three bears. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Gackenbach, D. (1976). Hattie rabbit. New York: Harper & Row.

Gag, W. (1938). Snow white. New York: Coward-McCaun & Geoghegan.

Gage, W. (1987). Cully cully and the bear. Illustrated by J. Stevenson. New York: Mulberry Paperback Books.

Galdone, P. (1959). Paddy and the penguin. New York: Thomas Crowell.

Galdone, P. (1962). The hare and the tortoise. New York: McGraw Hill.

Galdone, P. (1968). Henny penny. New York: Clarion Books.

Galdone, P. (1968). The Bremen town musicians. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Galdone, P. (1981). The three sillies. New York: Clarion Books.

Hader, B. & E. (1992). The ugly duckling. Fort Salonga, NY: Book Club of America.

Hall, W. (1985). Heathcliff olympic champ. Illustrated by S. Smallwood. Wahwah, NJ: Watermill Press.

Hoff, S. (1972). Dog of the Alps. New York: Partridge Press.

Holdsworth, W. C. (1969). Little red hen. New York: Farrar, Strauss & Giroux.

Hollander, C. (1992). Illustrated by G. Ulrich. New York: McClanahan Book.

Ingogleci, G. (1981). Benji and the tornado. Illustrated by B. Scheare. New York: Golden Press.

Irvin, R., & Strejan, J. (1973). Aladdin. USA: Superscope.

Kensaid, L. (1989). A windy day. Illustrated by E. Kensaid. Newmarket, England: Brimax Books.

Keigwin, R. P. (1965). The ugly duckling. Illustrated by A. Adams. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

Kent, J. (1974). More fables of Aesop. New York: Parents Magazine Press.

Lakritz, E. (1962). Randy visits the doctor. Illustrated by S. Quinn. Nashville, TN: Broadman Press.

Lemieux, M. (1991). Peter and the Wolf. New York: Morrow Junior Books.

Lewin, . (1991). The steadfast tin soldier. New York: Disney Press.

Lewis, J. (1988). Santa's runaway elf. Illustrated by M. Cooper. New York: Mcmillan.

Lobel, A. (1980). Fables. USA: Harper & Row.

Lobel, A. (1982). Ming Lo moves the mountain. New York: Greenwillow Books.

Lundell, M. (1984). The get along gang and the big bully. Illustrated by D. Baker. New York: Scholastic.

Marshall, J. (1989). Three little pigs. New York: Dial Books.

Mayer, M. (1991). Little Red Riding Hood. New York: Random House.

McCloskey, R. (1969). Make way for ducklings. New York: Viking Press.

McPhil, D. (1980). Those terrible toy-breakers. New York: Parents Magazine Press.

Milone, K. (1981). Beauty and the beast. Mahwah, NJ: Troll Associates.

Moche, D. L. (1982). We're taking an airplane trip. Illustrated by C. Bracken. Racine, WI: Western Publishing.

Moore, E. (1985). Grandma's house. Illustrated by E. Primavera. New York: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Books.

Page, P. K. (1992). The traveling musicians of Bremen. Illustrated by K. M. Denton. Boston: Little, Brown.

Perrault, C. (1979). Puss in boots. Illustrated by A. DaRif. Mahwah, NJ: Troll Associates.

Peyo. (1981). The wandering smurf. New York: Random House.

Plume, I. (1980). The Br men town musicians. Garden City, NY: Double & Company.

Potter, B. (1989). The tale of Peter Rabbit. New York: F. Warne & Company.

Reich, A. (1983). The care bears and the terrible twos. Illustrated by C. Bracken. New York: Random House.

Reinach, J. (1977). Goose goofs off. Illustrated by R. Heftner. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Sharmat, M. W. (1975). Walter the wolf. Illustrated by K. Oechsli. Weekly Reader Children's Book Club.

Slater, T. (1985). The road runner mid-Mesa marathon. Illustrated by J. Costanza. Racine, WI: Western Publisher.

Stevenson, J. (1990). What's under my bed? New York: Mulberry Books.

Stock, C. (1988). Sophie's knapsack. New York: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Books.

Titus, E. (1961). Anatole over Paris. Illustrated by P. Goldone. New York: Whittlesey House.

Weinberger, A., & L. G. (1982). Learning about the zoo. Illustrated by K. McCarthy. Chatsworth, CA: Superscope.

Williams, J. (1967). The cookie tree. Illustrated by B. Hampton. New York: Parents Magazine Press.

Zemach, H. & K. (1992). The princess and froggie. Illustrated by M. Zemach. USA: Farrar, Straus & Giroux.

Zemach, M. (1988). Three little pigs. New York: Michael di Capua Books.

Appendix I

Schedule of Events

SCHEDULE OF EVENTS

	Phone	Letter	In Person	Date
Principal			1	August
			1	September
Parent-Trainer			2	September
			2	October
			2	November
			2	December
			1	January
			1	February
			1	April
Teachers			3	September
			2	October
			2	November
			2	December
			3	January
			3	February
			2	March
			1	April
All Parents		1		September
	1		1	November
	1		1	December
All Children			1	October
			1	April
Exchange of Books			1	November
			2	December
			3	January
			3	February
			2	March